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THE JAPAN MAGAZINE

A Representative Monthly of Things Japanese

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THE JAPAN MAGAZINE

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Admiral Viscount Makoto Saito, Governor-General of Korea, and Chief of Japan's Delegation to the Three-Power Naval Limitation Conference at Geneva..

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Upper—Viscount K. Ishii, Ambassador to France and Second Chief of Japan's Delegation to the Geneva Naval Conference.

Lower— Mr. S. Saburi, of the Foreign Office and Third Delegate to the Geneva Conference.

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1. The Yōmei Gate, Nikko Shrine.

2. Garden of the Heian Shrine, Kyoto.

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The arrival in Tokyo of the new Russian Soviet Ambassador, Mr. Varien Dovgalevsky(right).

The Cabinet at the closing of the Diet in March: seated in the center is the Premier Mr. Wakatsuki; seated at the left is Mr. Okada, Minister of Education, and prominent in many controversies; standing immediately behind the Premier is Mr. Kataoka, new Finance Minister, much in the public eye during the recent financial crisis, at the left, and at the right, next to him, is the redoubtable Home Minister, Mr. Hamaguchi, famous for many innovations while Finance Minister. Seated in front, right, is General Ugaki, War Minister.

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The Second Naval Limitation Conference

PUBLIC opinion in Japan very generally approves the government's prompt acceptance of President Coolidge's invitation to a conference at Geneva to endeavor to bring about a limitation of such naval armament as was not covered by the agreements reached at the historic Washington Naval Conference, both when it was addressed to the five powers that attended the latter, and when subsequently, owing to the refusals of France and Italy, the President addressed his appeal to Great Britain and Japan only.

Public thought in Japan regarding world naval affairs has made much progress since the Washington Conference. Prior to that gathering there was much opposition to this country's participation, and in many quarters it was thought that Japan was to be made the victim of some deep-laid plot.

All that has changed. The international advantages to be gained from a successful outcome of the new conference are fully recognized, especially as regards Japan's relations with the United States. At the same time, the economic and military advantages are not lost sight of.

The benefits conferred by the stoppage of the ruinous competition in great warships, thanks to the initiative of the American government, are now appreciated. It is earnestly desired to extend these benefits as respects smaller warships, consonant with the non-impairment of Japan's national defence.

The Japanese delegation to the new conference, which started for Geneva by a specially engaged steamer in the latter part of April, has a distinguished membership. The three chiefs are Admiral Viscount Makoto Saito, Governor-General of Korea; Viscount Kikujiro Ishii, Ambassador to France and formerly Foreign Minister and Ambassador to the United States; and Mr. Sadao Saburi, chief of the Treaties Bureau of the Foreign Office.

The technical experts who will advise these diplomats are: Vice-Admiral Seizo Kobayashi, chief of the Naval Affairs Bureau of the Navy Department, Rear-Admiral Kanjiro Hara, of the Navy General Staff, Commander Naokuni Nomura, Commander Ichiro Sato, Lieutenant Commander Eichoku Maruyama, Lieutenant Commander Kyosuke Mizuno, Engineer Lieutenant Commander Hiromitsu Yanagiwara, Surgeon Commander Yoshiyuki Hiki, Fleet-Paymaster Hikosuke Araki, and Constructor Commander Kikuo Fujimoto. The delegation also includes

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Mr. Masataka Matsukuma, Mr. Kiyoshi Yamagata and Mr. Okinobu Kaya of the Foreign Office, and is accompanied by Artillery Colonel Kyosuke Kawamura, Mr. Kizo Fujiwara, Korean Government Secretary, Mr. Tsurukichi Maruyama in an advisory capacity. The secretary is Mr. Juji Enomoto.

That these able leaders will represent Japan in conference with the two other great world naval powers is the cause of great satisfaction in this country, and something as to their personality and previous achievements is of interest.

Viscount Saito

The unique accomplishment of this statesman-admiral is the prosperity and content that now rule in Japan's great continental dominion, Korea, of which he has been Governor-General since 1919.

Eighteen years have elapsed since the establishment of the Government-General of Chosen following the annexation of that country to Japan, those 18 years being devoted to untiring efforts for the improvement of that country. Thanks to wise administration, Chosen has now attained great progress in culture, commerce and industry, and traffic and communication means.

More than seventy per cent of the officials in that government are employed from among the natives. This single fact proves how developed Korean civilization is today, while presenting an example of the coalescence which Japanese and Chosenese are approaching.

Admiral Viscount Saito, the present Governor-General, is the foremost of all who have held that post in administrative ability as well as personal character. He is beloved and respected by the people of Chosen. Indeed, he is wholly depended on by them. He never fails to charm all who come in contact with him, by his presence of mind, generosity, and shrewdness. If a rebellious Chosenese asks for an interview with him, he grants it immediately without any fear. The Viscount invites the visitor to the drawing-room and listens to what he says, then tells him his own views carefully and earnestly. There is no barrier erected between them; his interview is friendliness itself. No wonder he has gained brilliant success in his admistration.

The Viscount was born at a small town, Midzusawa, in Iwaté Prefecture, in the north-eastern part of Japan, the eldest son of Kohei Saito, in October, the 5th year of Ansei (1858). He was admitted to the Naval Cadet School in the 6th year of Meili (1873), and the 15th year of Meiji (1882) found him a second sub-lieutenant. Ever since his promotion in naval service was astoundingly rapid.

It was while he had the rank of Captain that his ability was recognized by Count Yamamoto, then Minister of the Navy, a veteran leader of the Japanese Navy, and he was made Vice-Minister under him. The fact that all the subordinate officials filling the posts of directors of the various bureaus in the Navy Department at that time were of admiral rank, and that Saito who was placed over them was a mere captain proves how his ability was regarded and and what a conspicuous figure he was.

In the 39th year of Meiji (1906) he was given the portofolio of the Navy, and it was in the first year of Taisho (1912) that he became full admiral. He held the Navy portfolio five times and retired to private life in the 3rd year of Taisho

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(1914).

On his resignation from the Navy Department he made up his mind not to take any further public post and began to lead a leisurely life, half a year in the capital and the other half in Ichinomiya, a village in Chiba Prefecture.

However, Mr. Hara, the late Premier, would not leave such an able statesman as Admiral Saito in retirement and on his formation of the cabinet in the 8th year of Taisho (1919) made him accept the office of Governor-General of Chosen, rather against the latter's will. For the eight years since then, he has never relaxed his strenuous efforts towards the betterment of the welfare of the Koreans. The success of the administration is a tribute to Viscount Saito's greatness of character.

When the then Baron Saito entered the capital of Chosen for the first time as its Governor-General, a bomb thrown by a Chosenese destroyed one of the panes of the carriage in which he and Baroness Saito rode, near the Nandaimon Gate, Seoul. It caused great excitement. However, the admiral himself did not lose calmness of mind, he remained composed and even smiled and so did his wife. This presence of mind on his part made a great impression on the populace.

Viscount Saito is not a militarist statesman; the characteristics of his administration in Korea lie in an entirely civic policy by means of which he has ever endeavoured to promote the culture of the people and stabilize their daily life. His personality and achievements often have caused him to be mentioned for the Premiership when cabinet changes have taken place. But on each occasion he declared: "I have no intention of entering the centre of politics." This determination has made him all the more successful in his government.

Viscount Saito, as Chief Delegate representing Japan at the coming Three-Power naval conference has received an honour enjoyed by Prince Saionji at the Versailles Conference and by Prince Tokugawa, who headed the Japanese Delegation at the Washington Conference. It was only after much deliberation on his part and persuasion by the Government that Viscount Saito decided to accept the post. Premier Wakatsuki was so pleased that he told almost anybody he met: "Viscount Saito's consent is one of the happiest things for Japan. I thank him for the nation's sake."

Viscountess Haru-ko Saito is daughter of the late Admiral Viscount Nire, one of the founders of the Japanese Navy. Her married life has been a happy one. She is a leader in society, and in Korea, she has been of great help to her husband, and is loved and respected by all. She will accompany her husband to Geneva.

Viscount Ishii

Viscount Ishii is one of the veteran diplomats of Japan. Few can surpass him in force of personal character and in diplomatic ability. He enjoys popularity and a high reputation, at home and abroad.

He is from Chiba Prefecture, near Tokyo. Born the younger brother of Mr. Kametaro Owaku, in the 2nd year of Keio (1866), he was later adopted by the Ishii family of the same Prefecture. Upon his graduation from the Law Department in the Tokyo Imperial University in the 23rd year of Meiji

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(1890) he immediately entered the Foreign Office. He was soon appointed second secretary of legation, and since has successively served as First Class Consul; Legation First Secretary; Secretary at the Foreign Office; Sectional Chief of Telegraphic Affairs in the General Affairs Bureau, Foreign Office; and Director of the Commercial Affairs Bureau, the same Department. At length he became Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs, then Minist-Plenipotentiary. Later he became Foreign Minister. As Foreign Minister he displayed great ability. In recognition of his services in the annexation of Korea, and the revision of treaties he was created Baron in the 44th year of Meiji (1911) and was made Viscount for his services during the war with Germany. He was nominated Member of the House of Peers by the Throne in the 5th year of Taisho (1916).

While Japanese Ambassador to the United States, he impressed the American people with his open-heartedness and fair play. It is still fresh in our memory how strenuously he endeavoured to smooth out the intricate problem of Japanese immigrants in America, and it was during his Ambassadorship in Washington that he concluded the famous Ishii-Lansing Agreement, with Mr. Lansing, then Secretary of State.

Viscount Ishii is well versed in French and English. Uncovetousness and disinterestedness are his characteristics which have made him loved by all who have been in association with him. The Viscount is no less indifferent to political power than Viscount Saito.

Mr. Sadao Saburi

A central figure in the Foreign Office in Mr. S. Saburi, Director of the Treaties Bureau. Mr. Saburi is regarded as a Foreign Minister of the future.

He is a younger brother of Mr. Kazutsugu Saburi, *Kogaku-hakushi* or Doctor of Technology. He was born in 1879 in Tokyo, and graduated from the Law Department of the Tokyo Imperial University in the 38th year of Meiji (1905). Immediately upon his graduation he passed the diplomatic and consular service examination in 1905, and became Attaché to the Legation at Peking. Later Mr. Saburi was transferred in the same capacity to the Japanese Embassies at St. Petersburg (now Leningrad) and Paris, successively. In the 41st year of Meiji (1908) he was recalled to take up the office of Councillor at the Foreign Office. Four years later he was appointed Third Secretary to the Japanese Embassy at Paris; was promoted to be Second Secretary, in the 3rd year of Taisho (1914); to First Secretary, in the 5th year of Taisho (1916); returned home two years later, being appointed Secretary to the Foreign Office. So it can be seen that Mr. Saburi spent critical days during the World War in Paris.

At the Foreign Office he became Chief of the Personel Section. He was a member of the Japanese Delegation to the memorable Conference at Versailles after the Great War. Owing to his linguistic skill, especially in French, he played a conspicuous part as secretary and interpreter to the Japanese delegates. After the conclusion of the Conference he was appointed Councillor to the Foreign Department.

Later he was sent to the United States as First Secretary to the Embassy at

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Washington. While holding this post he attended the International Communications Preliminary Conference attached to the Japanese representatives, in 1920. One year later he was promoted to be Embassy Councillor and continued to serve at Washington.

He participated in the Washington Conference, which must have given him many valuable lessons for his duties at the forthcoming international parley.

Mr. Saburi was appointed Director of the Commercial Affairs Bureau in the Foreign Office in the 13th year of Taisho (1924), and then he was transferred to be Director of the Treaties Bureau in the same Department.

He attended the Customs Conference at Peking, and made an extensive trip through the Republic of China, where he met important persons, with whom he exchanged views. He is regarded as one of those who have the most up-to-date information about present-day China, particularly South China, in this country.

His wife, who died at Peking while he was actively taking part in the Customs Conference, was a daughter of the late Marquis Komura, the great diplomat, and younger sister of the present Marquis Komura, of the Foreign Office.

Prospects of Success

The refusals of France and Italy to join in this attempt to further reduce the armament burdens of the world, and the possibilities of a substantial agreement being reached among the three great naval powers—Great Britain, the United States and Japan—raise many points of interest, which may be summarized as follows.

France seems to have based her refusal to participate on the following grounds:

(1) A separate conference would tend to deprive the League of Nations of its privileges and impair its prestige in dealing with the disarmament question outside the League.

(2) A conference of only five powers will have no effect on the activities of the other powers.

(3) Disarmament should be made to apply simultaneously to land, naval and air forces, not to navies alone.

These objections must be criticized as smacking too much of sentimentalism and academic theory, which is characteristic to France.

First of all, it is rather a pathetic argument minifying the power of the League and disparaging its dignity, instead of respecting it, to consider the work of disarmament as one of the privileges solely of the League. Whatever plan is aimed at the maintenance and promotion of the world's peace should be welcomed heartily and supported by the League of Nations, as affording help to it.

Particularly, now that keen competition is going on among the powers in the construction of auxiliary vessels, while the disarmament committee of the League is devoting itself to the discussion of armaments the convocation of a naval conference must be very opportune.

As to the second item of the French contention, the American view is quite practical, that the participation in the conference of navyless countries or these whose naval power is weak would be useless for the former while it would simply cause difficulty by complicating the debates in the latter case.

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The third point of the French argument, which has long been maintained by her, would be satisfactory if it could be carried into effect. However, in view of the actual position of the disarmament committee of the League of Nations, still far away from disarmament of army, navy and aviation forces, would it not be fortunate for the world at large, if the navy competition at least were limited to a certain extent? Actually, the Washington Naval Agreement signed by the five naval powers of the World has proved itself very fruitful in helping to solve the problem of naval limitation.

Italy seems to oppose the United States' proposition for the following two reasons:—

(1) Disarmament must be universal.
(2) As the actual naval force of Italy is far from being adequate, there is no room for any further reduction.

The significance of the word, "universal," is ambiguous but, interpreting it in the widest sense, that army, navy and aviation forces all over the world should be limited, it is exactly the same as the French argument.

As to the second item of the Italian view, when it is literally interpreted, it comes to the conclusion that further limitation of Italian naval power is absolutely impossible.

The ground on which the Japanese Minister of the Navy first opposed the disarmament proposal was that limitation is impossible unless "not under the minimum necessary in the present situation of the world;" in other words, his contention was conditional.

Italy, however, opposes unconditionally, since she argues that in view of the present inadequacy of her naval power, any further limitation is impossible. There is no room left for argument.

In this manner, Italy is diametrically opposed to the limitation of naval power, while France insists on the argument that disarmament should be carried out simultaneously in the army, navy and aviation forces.

Needless to say, national defence can only be achieved by the co-operation of army, navy and air forces and none of the three can be substituted for another. In other words, a defect in the army cannot be supplemented by the navy, for example. For this reason, it is impossible to argue that as a country is too powerful in its army its naval power should be reduced, or that as another country is rather weak in aviation forces its army should be augmented.

Consequently, we come to the conclusion that conventions must be made separately for army, navy and aviation forces. So long as Italy absolutely opposes any naval disarmament, the realization of the French view that the disarmament of army, navy and aviation forces should be made simultaneously is impossible. Considering the matter from this light, the prospect of success of the disarmament discussions of the League of Nations now going on can be easily foreseen. And this makes the Tripartite Naval Conference all the more necessary.

On the refusal of France and Italy, the United States made the new proposal of holding a conference among Japan, Great Britain, and the United States. Japan did not hesitate to give a ready consent, which can be fully justified. How-

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ever, it must be remembered that the result of the forthcoming conference is far from being easily foretold, as many obstacles confront it.

The object of the Conference is the limitation of auxiliary vessels. As auxiliary vessels are of complex variety in kind as well as the services they render, the establishment of a ratio among the three powers will not be so simply done as for main vessels, whose only object is fighting. This was already discovered at the last conference, at Washington.

America seems to wish to apply the same ratio to auxiliary vessels as to main vessels, but that the Japanese navy opposes it from the viewpoint of naval strategy can be assumed from the statement recently made by the Minister of the Navy. What plan does the United States, the promoter of the conference, have vis-à-vis Japan's objection ?

A second impediment is in connection with the three Powers' attitude towards France and Italy. Great Britain is so close to France, geographically, politically, as well as militarily, that she is always contending with her for supreme power in Europe ; each power regards the other as an imaginary enemy. For this reason, Great Britain will not agree to any scheme of naval limitation that does not include France, unless it is guaranteed that she will be helped by the United States and other countries, should war break out.

President Coolige was enthusiastic and courageous enough to propose the Tripartite Naval Conference, even in anticipation of such internal and external obstacles, so how deeply disappointed the American people will be in case of the Conference being a failure can be easily imagined. On the other hand, it will be an inevitable consequence that competition in the construction of auxiliary vessells will be far keener than ever in case of the collapse of the Conference.

The word "limitation" of armament rather than "reduction" seems to be more in use. Now, limitation is nothing but negative reduction for checking competitive expansion of power. In a conference for the purpose of armament limitation, nobody will necessarily oppose limitation itself.

The only question lies in to what extent the limitation can be carried out, and the fundamental point is whether the standard of limitation is to be equal for all three powers concerned, or not. If limitation is discriminatory the most important and difficult question is how the ratio will be established.

It is unfair from the viewpoint of the theory of equality of nations, and a sort of humiliation to a nation, when considered in a certain aspect, for a discriminatory ratio in armament for national defence to be established.

However, setting aside justice or injustice from a theoretical standpoint, as long as there actually do exist countries unable to have armament on equal footing with others, nobody can close his eyes to the fact that there exists competition in armament. Consequently Japan might as well take part in the competition to the last, sticking to the theory of equality of nations, but, if on account of circumstances she does not desire to indulge in such competition, she may limit her armament by herself of her own free will, or may enter into convention with rival

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powers for limiting armament reciprocally. Whichever method may be taken, it is unavoidable that the ratio will be settled discriminatingly. Should Japan limit her naval power by herself, rival powers would be free to make their strength double or treble, which would be very disadvantageous, and unsafe as well, for Japan. It is more advisable to enter into a convention with the rivals for reciprocally achieving naval limitation, provided the terms are satisfactory.

In short, the limitation question, at least for Japan, is not a question of national dignity or theory, but one of utility or material interests.

Fact is invariably a product of necessity. The fact of armament competition must have been produced from some necessity or other; in the meanwhile, limitation of armament is none the less advocated from some necessity. Therefore, now that the necessity of disarmament is more keenly felt than that of armament competition, the limitation of armament is quite possible.

Today, when a war of invasion can be excluded from our consideration the necessity of armament is no more than for securing the national defence. Once that is guaranteed, there is no longer any necessity of competing in armament.

Furthermore, while it may be from the humane desire of preventing war on earth that reduction or limitation of armament is so ardently advocated today, its main cause most be ascribed to the economic necessity felt by all peoples of getting rid of the heavy burden emanating from armament competition.

This forces the conclusion that the nation who feels most strongly economic pains resulting from reckless armament competition is the one who feels most keenly the necessity of disarmament; and it is obvious that the nation who feels most strongly this necessity is compelled to offer the largest sacrifice for the successful conclusion of a convention for such limitation.

In other words, the dimension of the sacrifices to be made for disarmament is decided by the extent to which the Powers participating in the conference feel the necessity of limitation or of the prevention of competion in armament.

The vital point on which the national attention should be concerntrated, being confronted with a disarmament conference, is this question of what sacrifice to make for the achievement of the object.

The forthcoming conference will deal with auxiliary vessels. Consequently, the economic results will be slighter than of the Conference at Washington. Suppose for the moment that the forthcoming conference decides that all auxiliary vessels should be limited to their present force and that no new vessels should be constructed, the economic advantage gained by Japan will amount to 40,000,000 to 50,-000,000 yen per annum, no very considerable sum in view of the financial power of the Japan today. But it should be remembered that the Geneva conference is nothing but a skirmish preliminary to the next Washington Conference which will be convened after five years, and is of important significance for this reason.

Should the present Conference end in failure, the continuation of the Washington Agreement will be very doubtful; in such an event it is feared that keener competition than ever in the construction of main vessels will ensue, which might result in bringing about a second World War. Therefore Japan attaches great importance to the Tripartite Naval Conference, the sucess of which is eagerly hoped for.

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Japan at Work

The Dye Stuff Industry

THE dye stuff industry was started in Japan as an outcome of the World War, which impressed the Government and people with the necessity of self-supply.

The Government promulgated in 1915 a law encouraging the manufacture of dyes and chemicals and under this law the Japan Dye Stuff Manufacturing Co. Ltd. was organized. Various other manufacturers of dyes came into existence. For a time, they prospered, as the importation of foreign dyes had ceased and the demand had to be met with the home products, which were clumsily made. At one time the production of dyes in Japan reached tens of millions of yen in value, although the market was the nexorbitantly high.

As time went on, the Japanese manufacturers advanced in skill and production. At the same time, the cost was lowered, and the industry made healthy development.

The war ended, the American manufacturers extended production and made an attempt to export their products to such an extent as to hold the foreign market, controlled by the German manufacturers before the war. The effect of this was soon felt in Japan, where the comparatively small manufacturers encountered strong American competition, menacing their existence. In order to protect the domestic industry the Japanese Government revised the import duty on dyes in 1920, making it 35 per cent., a protective duty instead of the former revenue duty. This had the result of mitigating in a measure the American competition and opening the way for renewed development of the domestic industry.

The German dye stuff industry recovered rapidly after the end of the war, and the German manufacturers did their best to regain the foreign market lost in the war, taking advantage of the depreciation of foreign exchange. England, American, France and Italy, which like Japan had been working energetically to establish an independent dye stuff industry, vetoed the importation of German dyes, in order to prevent the latter from invading their markets and destroying their own industries.

The German manufacturers, with their products excluded from the important European and American markets, concentrated their main force in the Orient, and more particularly, in Japan and China, where they made strenuous efforts to recover their pre-war position. As a result, the American dyes, which were struggling for mastery in the Japanese market, were ousted first by the German goods. The latter then attacked the Japanese products, and severe rivalry ensued.

The Japanese industry had not been long established and had not the full confidence of consumers, while the German industry had been in existence for many years. Moreover the German dyes covered all the kinds required in Japan, whereas those made in Japan, were only a part of these important kinds. The German manufacturers could recoup

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easily the losses suffered from the competition with the Japanese manufacturers with the profits obtained by the sale at a comparatively high profit of the kinds not made in Japan, while the Japanese manufacturers could not withstand the competition beyond the limit at which their prices were cut to cost.

In these circumstances, many of the Japanese manufacturers, who numbered over 100, vanished, and only about 40 of some importance survived. Even these survivors were obliged to close their works temporarily or permanently after 1923, when the competition reached its zenith, and even the Japan Dye Stuff Manufacturing Company, favored by the Government, was thrown into a position in which it had no alternative but to suspend operations, unless some remedial measure could be found, its market having been captured by the German manufacturers and its products lying idle.

This obliged Japan to follow in the steps of other countries in restricting legally the importation of dye stuffs from nontreaty countries, in June, 1924. In this, checking the German goods was the chief object. It was for the purpose of preventing the kinds made sufficiently in Japan from being imported, provided that prices did not advance heavily, and for insuring the maintenance of a market for the Japanese products.

Until the end of the second half of 1925, there was a fairly large amount of German dyes held in stock here, and during the first half, a large amount of American dyes was imported on a revision of the import tariff being expected to pass the 50th session of the Diet. Moreover, the demand for dyes abated due to the general trade dullness, which depressed the textile industry. These factors combined kept the Licene Law from producing any good effect. At the same time, however, the law had the effect of reviving the home dye stuff industry.

Towards the end of 1925, the stock of German dyes decreased and the effect of the law grew more appreciable. Moreover, the adoption of a specific duty for dyes in the place of an ad valorem duty as previously by the general tariff revision at the beginning of 1926 prevented at least the importation of common grade dyes from countries other than Germany. Thereupon, the Japan Dye Stuff Manufacturing Company put its whole plant in operation and other dye stuff works were likewise invigorated.

The period of granting an official subsidy to the Japan Dye Stuff Manufacturing Company expired on October 14, 1925, by which time the company had been subsidized to the extent of 16,000,000 yen in ten years. This amount was not spent uselessly, for the company succeeded in manufacturing about 50 kinds out of some 100 important kinds required in Japan. In addition, there were about 20 kinds made by other parties. Altogether, more than one-half of these 100 important kinds could be produced commercially, which shows the progress attained by the industry in Japan, when it is considered that the industry requires the highest technique and is the most difficult to make succeed of all branches of industry.

Even among the remaining 30 kinds, not a few can be made well, but their commercial or economical production requires yet a large amount of money for

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research. The above company having no means to spend such an amount of money unless an official subsidy was granted anew, the Government provided a new law in 1926, encouraging the production of dye stuffs, and promising to aid the manufacturers of certain 20 kinds of dyes specified by an Imperial ordinance, for a fixed period. Under this law, it may be expected that the kinds produced in this country will be increased yearly. Even to-day the original Government object has been attained by half.

The Nitrogen Industry

The nitrogen industry consists in the manufacture of nitrogeneous compounds, and an outline of it in Japan is given below.

The consumption of sulphate of ammonia in Japan stood in the period from 1917 to 1926 as follows:

(In Thousands of Tons)

Year	Amount	Year	Amount
1917.....	56	1922.....	163
1918.....	66	1923.....	250
1919.....	189	1924.....	274
1920.....	152	1925.....	313
1921.....	166	1926.....	400

The demand for the article has increased remarkably of late years. There are two chief reasons for it. One of them is that the supply of sulphate of ammonia has been made plentiful all over the world and the other is that the Japanese farmers became aware of the cheapness of sulphate of ammonia as compared with other nitrogeneous manures such as bean cake, fish cake, etc., which they had used, while both are the same in their nitrogeneous content.

Those who are well informed of the world's use of fertilizers and the actual state of Japanese farming, agree in the expectation of the above conditions growing more and more manifest hereafter, which may be seen from the fact that the total amount of sulphate of ammonia consumed in Japan in 1926 increased about 100,000 tons over the figure for 1925.

The production of sulphate of ammonia in Japan has not been increased well in proportion to the growth of consumption. Until 1923, the output here covered more than one-half of the consumption, but since then, the proportion decreased yearly instead of increasing, until at present the consumption is met by the domestic product only by about one-third.

The following table gives the consumption and production of the article in Japan since 1922:—

(In Thousand of Tons)

Year	Consumption.	Production.	Proportion of Production to Consumption. Per Cent.
1922...	163	84	53
1923...	250	104	42
1924...	274	105	39
1925...	323	120	37
1926...	400	150	38

Sulphate of ammonia manufactured in Japan is produced as a by-product of the dry distillation of coal-tar, from nitrolime, and by a direct compounding method, in the ratio of 10,000 tons for the first, 110,000 tons for the second and 30,000 tons for the third. From the existing conditions of production, many agree that the third method will hereafter be the most important factor in the increased production of the article in this country.

Practically, there are some projects in progress for the production of the article

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by the above third method. They are, one in Korea planned by the Japan Nitrogen Fertilizer Co. Ltd., one in North Echigo Province, Japan, by the Dai Nippon Artificial Fertilizer Co. Ltd. and one by another system projected by the same company, with a capacity of 100,000 tons, 30,000 tons and 20,000 tons respectively. If these projects are consummated as expected at present, the production of sulphate of ammonia in Japan will be increased about 150,000 tons a year within five years making a total output of about 300,000 tons.

The increase in the demand in the same period may be estimated to come up to 520,000 tons, the present amount of 400,000 tons plus 120,000 tons to be increased by the yearly ratio of 23,700 tons, the average yearly increase for the past five years. It is not doubted, however, that actually, the demand will be increased more than the estimate.

Of this estimated demand of 520,000 tons, 300,000 tons may be filled with the home product its proportion to the demand being only 58 per cent., and the other half will have to be imported as at present. Actually, the amount imported will be more than that, for the demand will be certainly increase over the above estimate.

If it is inevitable to import yearly sulphate of ammonia of about 50,000,-000 yen in value, it is a grave economic question. It may be pointed out, however, that sulphate of ammonia is made essentially of air, water, sulphur and coal, which can be obtained adequately in Japan, and the Japanese are skilled in its manufacture.

Practically, however, the industry has not attained such development here as the rayon industry. There are different reasons for it, and essentially, they are (1) that the capital needed is large, (2) that the price is declining due to oversupply throughout the world, (3) that the article is imported free, no tariff protection being given against foreign competition and (4) that the capital invested has, therefore, no safe return.

Not only is sulphate of ammonia important as a fertilizer, but it is absolutely necessary for the national defence in time of emergency, when it forms a source of explosives.

If this reasoning is right, the industry will, perhaps, be the first to be encouraged by the state.

Next about nitric acid. This acid is inorganic and is next in importance to sulphuric acid. It is also the first of the ammunition requisites for the national defence, being used in the manufacture of gun powder, explosives, dyes, celluoid, nitric cotton, etc.

At present, it is made of imported Chilian saltpetre by resolving it by sulphuric acid. Its yearly consumption is about 10,000 tons, valued at 2,000,000 yen. It is little imported and is somewhat exported.

In Germany, the article is manufactured chiefly by means of ammonia oxidization, which method has proved far more advantageous than the old method using Chilian saltpetre.

Japan stands in the same circumstances as Germany in this respect, and it is thought most important that the new method, which has been completely studied at the Special Nitrogen Laboratory, should be introduced to the public, in

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order to save the money paid for Chilian saltpetre and to lower the cost of production of nitric acid.

Of other nitrogeneous compounds, nitrolime need not be protected in particular, as it has been long sufficiently supplied here. As to ammonia chloride, etc., nothing need be considered in encouraging their production at present, for much will be made as a matter of course as soon as the sulphate of ammonia industry becomes independent. Regarding potassium cyanide, etc., there is none produced in Japan as yet, and the demand is met entirely by foreign products, which come to the yearly value of 2,000,000 yen. Some proper means must be adopted for having them supplied at home.

During 1925, the following nitrogeneous materials were imported into Japan:—

Kind	Quantity Tons	Value in 1,000 Yen
Sulphate of Ammonia.	200,000	33,200
Chilian Saltpetre	37,000	5,200
Ammonium Chloride ..	1,000	340
„ Carbonate.	300	120
Sodium and Potassium Cyanide	450	380

Below are the prices for sulphate of ammonia per ton since 1916:—

	Imported		Home Product	
Year	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest
	Yen	Yen	Yen	Yen
1916..	215	191	225	189
1917..	435	214	437	224
1918..	510	323	435	329
1919..	385	278	440	321
1920..	392	201	432	208
1921..	192	139	194	167
1922..	292	148	256	151
1923..	232	163	251	178
1924..	180	154	205	172
1925..	223	171	230	159
1926:				
Jan....	178	165	192	183
Feb. ..	160	169	184	182
Mar...	169	162	182	179
Apr. ..	165	156	185	180
May ..	151	145	180	173
June ..	185	155	199	180
July...	157	148	180	165
Aug...	142	139	161	155

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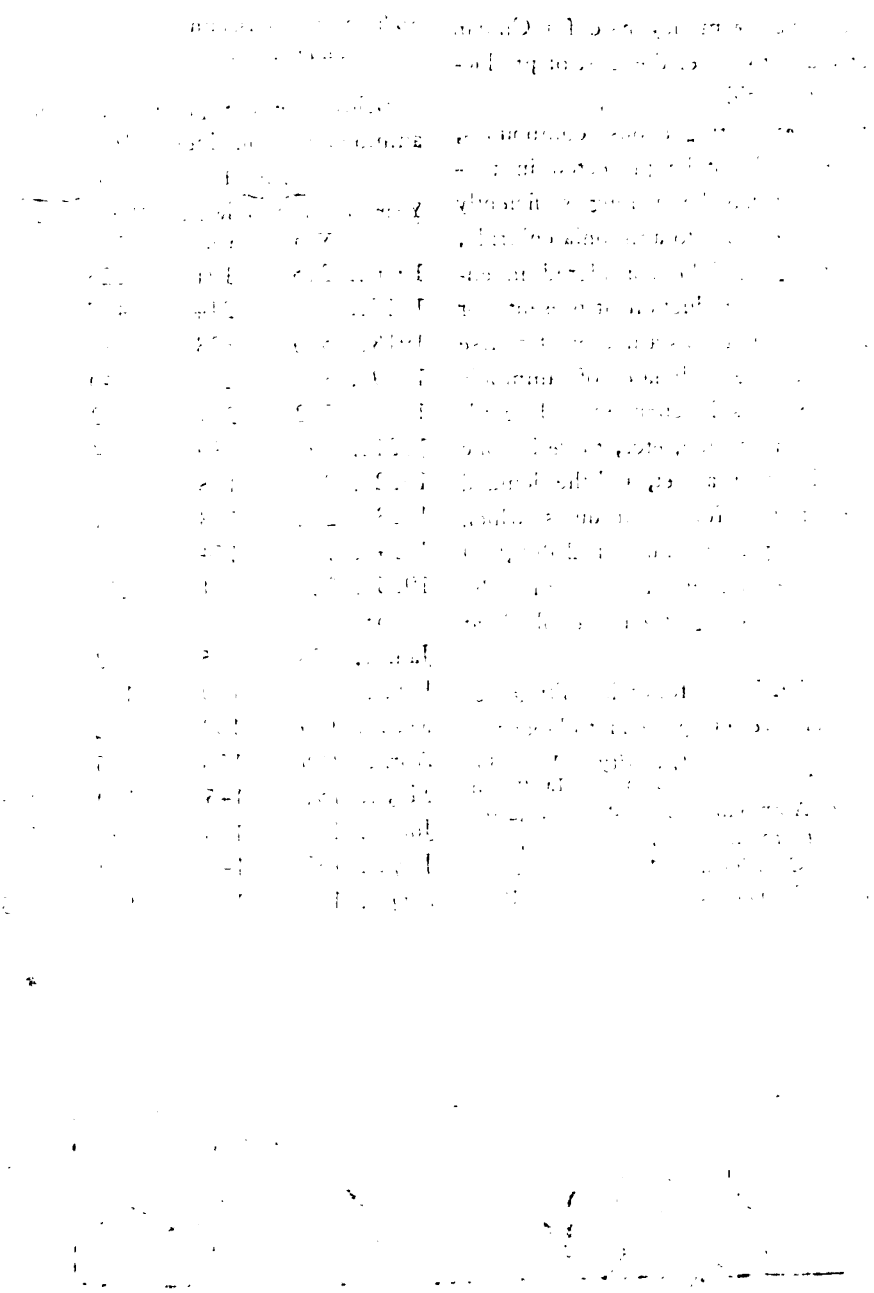

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The Role of Japanese Castles in Civilization

By Prof. Shin Orui, *Bungakuhakushi*

I HAVE several times referred to the Japanese castle in this magazine, but as I have not said much about its general aspect, I wish to take this opportunity to do so.

Originally speaking, the science of fortification did not make any remarkable development in Japan in ancient times, and the construction of such strong, solid, castles of a comparatively regular shape as the residential castles of *Daimyo* in the Feudal Age of the Tokugawa Shogunate was only developed from the Age of Civil Wars to the Momoyama Period when Toyotomi Hideyoshi attained the zenith of his power. Prior to those times a castle was quite simply constructed and was nothing but a temporary fortress.

Celebrated tacticians and warriors from older times displayed ability in building castles, taking advantage of strategic points such as mountains and rivers or natural defenses of hills, lakes and swamps. Skill in tactics of defence did not necessarily coincide with the art of fortification. Japanese warriors in olden times had not much knowledge of the science of fortification even if they were well able to defend themselves.

Defence relying upon natural strongholds was stressed, while the Chinese castle was a citadel surrounding a city or town,—a simple artificial production and nothing more. In this respect there was a fundamental difference between the Chinese and Japanese arts of fortification. This difference is mainly ascribed to the fact that while China has a vast expanse of plains, Japan has a great variety of mountains, valleys and rivers, and also to the difference of national temperaments.

In Chinese strategy in olden days, in most cases the main body was placed at the centre, while detachments were stationed in all directions so that battle could be met in whichever direction the enemy should approach. The so-called "Eight Arrays" contrived by the celebrated Chinese tactician, Kung Ming, is a strategy typical of this defence against an enemy from every direction. It may be similar to the square formation now in use in the army for challenging a raid by infantry or cavalry in modern warfare; it may be suitable for defending oneself but of little effect for positively attacking the foe.

Now turning to Japanese strategy which developed from the latter part of the Age of Civil Wars to the Tokugawa Period, despite there being signs of having followed the Chinese method in encampment it did not consist in exclusively aiming at defence. Generally speaking a troop was divided into three: the vanguard, the main body and the rearguard, which clearly signifies that the vangard was used for making an assault upon the enemy. The illustrious tactician, Soko Yamaga, teacher of Yoshio Oishi, leader of the Forty-Senven Ronins,

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adopted this kind of defence strategy which consisted rather in attack than in defence as in the case of Chinese tactics. Among the Japanese people who have displayed superior adility in warfare and militarism this method of attack strategy grew in favour, while the art of fortification, seemingly an essence of human artificialism, was held in contempt and consequently did not make any marked progress in Japan,

A little prior to the Momoyama Period, when Hideyoshi was at the height of his power, castles began to be erected on a larger scale, as a result of a crowd of chieftains struggling for supremacy. The science of fortification in consequence developed to a certain extent, broad moats surrounding castles, high, thick stone-walls being erected, fences and turrets being fortified, and sky-scraping castle-towers of splendid design and workmanship being built.

In order to explain such a remarkable change in the method of building castles, we have to make a survey of the trend of the times as well as the latent influence underlying it.

In those days, with the Momoyama Period coming between the Age of Civil Wars and the Tokugawa Era, a remarkable revolution in Japanese society was experienced, the old power accumulated since the Kamakura Period being upset, a new power arising. The age itself being stripped of its old clothes and wearing new ones, no wonder that the products of the age, all kinds of institutions and establishments, were transformed. It was the period in which a footman of yesterday was able to ascend to the highest step of the official ladder, that of Prime Minister. As the accession to the Throne by Napoleon from the rank of artillery sub-lieutenant was proof of how chaotic was France's internal condition after the Revolution, so can we readily imagine how active and flourishing was the Momoyama Period by the prominence to which Hideyoshi rose and the luxury in which he led his life. Most of the *Daimyo* who had had sway during the Ashikaga Era were upset by those who had been under their influence, a retainer of yesterday becoming the master of the morrow.

Daimyo whose pride lay in the nobility of their lineage and who ruled over the populace in general only for that reason had become so aristocratic that they were condemned to a sad life after having enjoyed evanescent glory. No period witnessed Daimyos' houses in more confusion than those days. So after entering the Tokugawa Era many daimiates were newly established or re-adjusted. As long as Daimyos' houses were not disturbed the age was not in a buoyant condition, while, if they began to be in disorder it showed how chaotic the period was.

Then, let us consider what motive was underlying the Momoyama Period when everything underwent fundamental transformation. Remarkable facts were that the life of the age was on a large scale and the national livelihood was considerably extended.

From this motive on an extensive scale all social phenomema emanated. From the viewpoint of the State, the influence of minor daimyo who had been holding sway each in his own locality was made a clean sweep of, territories of a comparatively larger area making their appearance

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instead. The condition of the Ashikaga and Kamakura Periods in which chieftains were holding sway each in his own territory in absolute separation was destroyed and rule on a centralization system began; heroes of the Age of Civil Wars annexed minor domains and endeavoured to make their rule prevail over the newly expanded territories. This tendency became more prevalent in the Momoyama Period and at last culminated in such a condition that a new ruler controlling all smaller *Daimyo*, held the whole territory of Japan in his own single hand. Oda Nobunaga, Toyotomi Hideyoshi and Tokugawa Iyeyasu were three great warlords representing this tendency of government. In this manner this system of administration was finally accomplished on the establishment of the Tokugawa Shogunate. This form of government was on the basis of the already-existing decentralization of the authority in various localities, but the prestige of centralization of power was so great that government in general was of a centralized nature in comparison with the completely separated state of power in former days. The national life of Japan today has been expanded to the wider scope of racialism from that of the pure nationalism of the 18th century, no more than the extension of the national life in the Momoyama Period gave birth to an inclination towards centralization of power. Had it not been for this extension of the national life, we could not have had the peaceful age of three hundred years under the Tokugawa Shogunate régime. Even the enlightened ages of Meiji and Taisho are a prolongation of this extended national life continuing from the Momoyama Period.

As a result of the extension of the national life, the efficiency of ruling of their fiefs by *Daimyo* had to be made higher; *Daimyo* had to command a larger troop than ever, and yet had to make a disciplined movement by putting themselves at its head. Consequently, they were far from attaining this object by leaving *samurai*, their followers, in their respective localities. All the *Daimyo* concentrated their *samurai* at their sides, which resulted in making the residential places of those *Daimyo* large towns. The castle-town life of *samurai* dated from the Momoyama Period, as a result of which *samurai* commenced to form a social class by profession entirely separate from the agricultural, industrial and commercial classes of Japanese society.

Not only from this military necessity, but also there was an economic reason for each *Daimyo* to carry out good government of his fief and thus prosper his own territory, otherwise it was next to impossible for him to pit himself against the invading power of the neighbouring rival lords, because the struggle for existence had become keen.

It was for this reason that all *Daimyo* tried their best to exploit the natural resources in their territories and develop means of communications and all kinds of industry. This tendency was more remarkable from the early part to the middle of the Tokugawa Era, and those enlightened *Daimyo* and famous retainers, whose names have remained until today rendered great efforts in this direction. Yet this tendency dates from the Momoyama Period.

The great Takeda Shingen, warlord of Kai Province, is famous for having

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paid keen attention to the exploitation of mines in his own fief; Kato Kiyomasa whose name is remembered even by a small child as a veteran warrior who was in the thick of the fight many times is known as having given heed to various social institutions in his castle-town of Kumamoto and the industrial development of his territory. Although those warriors' age was far from being pacific, bloodshed and warcries being prevalent everywhere, *Daimyo* were unable to devote themselves entirely to warfare, because they felt the necessity of taking measures for popular prosperity and military power within their own domains by definite policy and principles. They were not able to be content with being great heroes on horseback, but were compelled to learn statesmanship for promoting the national wealth and people's prosperity.

As a result of *samurai* swarming about their lord's castle-town and making their livelihood there, such a castle-town began to be a commercial city. However, as those *samurai* were of the purely military class by profession, that is, a consumers' class, it was a natural consequence that merchants concentrated in the castle-town to meet the needs of those consumers. It was in the Momoyama Period that the influence of the *Chonin* or merchant class began for the first time to be brought to bear upon society, spontaneously with the development of town life in Japan. Although the development of towns and cities and the increase of influence of the *Chonin* class reached its climax in the Tokugawa Era, or, strictly speaking, in the middle part of that period, the same tendency can be traced back to the Oda and Toyotomi Periods.

When Oda Nobunaga erected his Adzuchi Castle in Omi Province, he opened a castle-town and protected merchants living there by exempting them from all kinds of taxes, in order to prosper the town. After the surrender of the Adzuchi Castle following the downfall of the Oda Family, Toyotomi Hidetsugu, heir to Hideyoshi, established the Yawata Castle near Adzuchi and started the Yawata castle-town, to which the merchants of the old Adzuchi castle-town were invited and exempted from taxes after the manner of Oda Nobunaga. When Toyotomi established a large citadel at his Fushimi Castle, he included the merchants' quarter in the citadel, which was also from the motive of giving protection and privilege to merchants.

It was because *Daimyo* not merely tried to make their castles their military strategic centres but began to regard them as important economic centres that *Chonin* or merchants began to be regarded by *Daimyo* with much importances. *Daimyos'* castle-towns were in this manner constantly developing as commercial cities.

This was one of the characteristics of the Momoyama Period throughout, an important fact in close contact with the vital spirit of the national life of the age. It was during this period that the construction of castles underwent remarkable improvement and innovation. As a result of the national life being enlarged, all the power was centralized under the influence of the *Daimyo* who succeeded in unifying it. The castle had the same destiny as its owner. From the Kamakura Era down to the Ashikaga Era many castles on a small scale were scattered about the territory of each lord, but as a

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consequence of *samurai* gathering at the side of their commanding lord, those small castles lost their *raison d'etre*. Thus the residential castle of the principal lord necessarily was on an extensive scale, which necessitated the centralization of minor castles and the enlargement of the castle life. What was its direct result? The castle became not only a stronghold for the mere purpose of military defence but rather a solid residential building. In the meantime, a spot with facilities for traffic and communication was preferred as a location for the site rather than a geographical stronghold, from the necessity of ruling the domain.

Then where were strongholds to meet the necessity of national defence? They were rather small fortresses or natural strongholds near provincial frontiers than *Daimyos'* residential castles in towns. In other words, military strategy was so improved that defence was carried out not in the castle itself but on the provincial frontier, and the principle of defence was established on the basis of defence of a province as a whole, half-measured defence by a small castle as had been the custom being entirely ignored. The sphere of defence was greatly enlarged.

This tendency gave birth to the construction of large and imposing castles, and livelihood in every direction within the limit of a fief was carried on with this kind of large castle as its centre. Not only political but economic, social and scientific life was concentrated in the castle-town. In these circumstances, a castle-town must have been the center of light while in the Feudal Age it was more in the shadow. We may call the period after the Momoyama Period the Period of Castle-town Civilization.

Now, after the Momoyama Period and thereabout the science of fortification realized marvellous development, in consequence of which castles became of much more solid construction than ever. This was by no means due to the Japanese people having become suddenly timid and inclined to be absorbed in defending themselves. The introduction of guns and the prevalence of their use among the warriors accelerated ther econstruction of castles; there sprang up the imminent necessity of strengthening the stone castle-walls, more strongly fortifying towers and turrets, reinforcing every part of a castle so as to resist successfully attack by guns and cannon.

Not only from such military need, but for elevating the efficiency of ruling the territory, it was found to be of paramount importance to effect the power of control of the ruler over the ruled in those ages. One of the most effective measures for that purpose was to make the ruler's residential castle as imposing and magnificent as possible so as to display his dignity and prestige. It was simply because of this fact that a castle-tower was erected high above the castle-wall. The tower was nothing but a means by which to overawe the fief's populace.

As a result of the extension of the life of the public the castle could not be of such simplicity as before. With the progress of civilization, moreover, it became one of the hobbies of a lord to have his castle built to exemplify the art of fortification, with an artistic outward appearance as well as dignity.

The Japanese castle has been handed down to the present day, after having gone through such manifold improvements and with such various significances embodied in it. Therefore, the student of Japanese castles must make his researches into the environment, background and contents of the castle, not merely the castle itself.

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Old Japanese Education and International Education

By Dr. M. Sawayanagi

THE necessity of international education has been advocated more and more emphatically since the World War, and at present, it is a general tendency in the world.

In Japan, the writer and his friends of like mind recently formed the Kokusai-Kyoiku-Kyokai (International Educational Society), through which active interest has been taken in the question, considering it impossible for us to look indifferently on it simply as a tendency outside the country. This tendency is a matter of congratulation from the viewpoint of human life.

The idea did not begin, however, only recently, as the ideal of international education is to give the necessary education to a man. This idea can be traced back to a very long time ago. In Oriental Confucianism, for instance, the necessity of education, as a man, was never despised, while the relations of master and servant were strongly advocated.

Old Japanese education made nationalism it principle and the basis of the national spirit. At the same time, it never made light of education to be given necessarily.

In November, 1891, Education Minister Oki gave instructions as to the essential points of the revised rules for primary schools, in which he said that the common education was essentially to teach the path a man should take as a man, and also the duties a man should discharge as a Japanese subject, for the welfare of society and the nation and enhancing their position. From this, it is evident that education necessary, as a man, was not neglected in the old education.

The education of internationalism is not, therefore, a new invention. Its principle and spirit have never been belittled in the past, and it is only the question of degree that has differentiated both forms of education, and it is erroneous to consider that each has a principle or an idea inconsistent with the other.

It is, of course, necessary, however, to more emphatically on internationalism at the present moment than before, for human life must arrive at this point in the end, about which the writer need not go into detail.

When humankind reaches the height of development and perfection, then there will be no contradiction found between nationalism and internationalism, but on the contrary agreement between them, when we may call them either nationalism or internationalism as we please.

While they are making their way to the goal, there will be faults found in their respective principles and we must endeavour to remedy them gradually with the object of harmonising one principle with the other. The most important questions to be considered to-day by our educationists are how to realize internationalism and how to give international education.

It does not require any new form of education, but is simply a task in which internationalism is to be preached more enthusiastically than hitherto, necessarily asa general tendency of the world.

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Prosperous Korea

A PROSPERITY undreampt of a few decades ago has of late attended the industry of the Korean peninsula, or Chosen, the value of its output in the 14th year of Taisho (1925) reaching the really vast sum of 1,796,641,000 yen in comparison with the total output of 306,000,000 yen and the total sum of the imports and exports of 60,000,000 yen in the 43rd year of Meiji (1910), when Chosen was annexed to Japan.

This marvellous development is due to the painstaking efforts and sagacious policy of the Government-General in the encouragement of the exploitation of natural resources.

A brief survey of what has been done in agriculture, forestry, marine products industry, general industry and mining, shows some of the reasons for this modern affluence of this age-old country.

Agriculture

Agriculture is the principal productive industry in Chosen, the output of agricultural products occupying 80 per cent of the total amount of all products. In the 14th year of Taisho (1925) it amounted to 1,341,247,000 yen; persons engaged in agriculture are about 80 per cent of the whole population of Chosen. The total area of the arable land is 4,560,000 square *cho*.

The agricultural products of Chosen are principally rice, wheat, beans, peas, cotton, hemp, flax, cabbage, to which should be added sericulture, and the poultry and fruit industries.

First mention must be made of rice. Rice is cultivated on an area of 1,570,000 square *cho*; an average annual crop is 15,000,000 *koku*, more than 5,000,000 *koku* of which is exported to Japan Proper, while the remainder is consumed in the peninsula. Thanks to recent innovations in the method of its cultivation, Korean rice is not inferior now to Japanese rice in quality.

Next in importance to rice, comes wheat, the quality of which is said to be equal to Australian or American wheat. The 15th year of Taisho produced over 2,100,000 *koku* of wheat. As for beans and peas, their production has recently been very active. Particularly, the 15th year of Taisho (1926) saw more than 4,500,000 *koku* of beans produced, while the amount exported in the same year exceeded 1,400,000 *koku*.

Sericulture is one of the industries of Korea, to which special attention should be paid. The total production of cocoony has recently reached over 285,000 *koku* per year, which shows more than twenty-two fold increase in comparison with the figures in the year of annexation. Furthermore, a plan has been adopted since

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the 14th year of Taisho (1925) to bring the production of cocoons to 1,000,000 *koku* per annum, with the aid of a Government subsidy. The success of the plan is considered to be beyond doubt.

Special mention should be made of the extensive scheme for increasing the production of rice, which has lately been contemplated. It is a huge undertaking covering fourteen consecutive years, that is, from the 15th year of Taisho (1926) to the 14th year of Showa (1939). The plan covers both the improvement of land and of agricultural methods.

The land improvement consists in the improvement and extension of paddy-fields covering an area of 350,000 square *cho*, including the improvement of irrigation for 185,000 square *cho*, the alteration of classes of land for 90,000 square *cho*, and the new exploilation and reclamation of an area of 75,000 square *cho*.

The improvement of agricultural methods comprises the increase of manuring the already existing paddy-fields and of those which are to be newly improved and extended, better tilling and sowing methods, etc.

The expenses required for this work are estimated at 303,250,000 yen for the improvement of land and 40,000,000 yen for that of agricultural methods, 343,-250,000 yen total, which is to be managed by the Government.

Half of the sum is to be shouldered by the Finance Department, which is to appropriate it by a low interest loan from its Deposit Bureau while 20 to 30 per cent of the total amount will be subsidized by the State Treasury.

This enormous undertaking, when it has been accomplished, will bring about an increase of the production of rice in Chosen to 8,200,000 *koku* yearly; of this, about 3,000,000 *koku* will be consumed by the increasing Korean population, and the remaining 5,000,000 *koku* will be exported to Japan proper as well as abroad. Added to the quantity of rice already exported yearly, we find that it will be possible to export a total amount of 20,-000,000 *koku* per annum.

Forestry

The forests of Chosen extend over an area of about 16,000,000 square *cho*, viz., more than 70 per cent of the total area of the country. Of this, about 5,190,000 square *cho* are state forests which are to be reserved, while about 11,400,000 square *cho* are state forests not to be reserved and private-owned forests. Of about 9,000,000 square *cho* of cultivated forests, including both national and private-owned, about 3,600,000 square *cho* are stateowned, the rest being under private ownership. As the demand from various directions is increasing year after year for Chosenese timber, the Government-General is encouraging afforestation and taking steps for the protection and increase of the existing forests.

In June, the 15th year of Taisho (1926), the Government-General established the new Forestry Department for dealing with all affairs regarding forestry administration. The Government-General demanded 416,000 yen for afforestation subsidies and 30,000 yen for exterminating noxious insects in the forests, in the 1927 Budget of the National Treasury.

It should be added that the climate of Chosen is suited to a great variety of

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plants, their number reaching more than 700.

Marine Products Industry

Chosen is surrounded by the sea in three directions, its coastline being 9,325 miles. Its geographical situation, climate and the ocean currents make the country rich in marine products.

However, prior to annexation, the Korean fishermen were generally ignorant and primitive, adhering to their traditions, the natural result of which was the fishery products, were not taken advantage of.

Since the annexation the Government-General has paid special attention to this and made untiring efforts for the development of the marine product industry, and the education of the fishermen, in consequence of which the output has gradually increased.

In the 44th year of Meiji (1911), the total catch was valued at 6,760,000 yen and marine products 2,650,000 yen, but in the 14th year of Taisho (1925), a decade later, the former reached 51,550,000 yen and the latter 32,060,000 yen: the figures speak for themselves.

In the future, when the fishery capital is increased and the improvement of fishing ports and fishing gear is carried out the industry will be far more developed. There is ample room for further expansion.

General Industry

Industry, properly speaking, ranks next to agriculture among the productive enterprises in Chosen, so far as its annual output is concerned. While the total output of industry, including industrial products from side-occupations, amounted to 30,000,000 yen in the 44th year of Meiji (1911), it increased to 295.000,000 yen in the 14th year of Taisho, that is, within ten years.

The number of factories has recently reached over 4,200 as compared with 250 in the 44th year of Meiji (1911); the total capital invested in them has advanced to 265,800,000 yen from the 10,600,000 yen of 1911.

The general industry carried on until the year of Chosen's annexation was on a small scale, such as weaving, ceramics, paper manufacture, brewery and metal industry, the technique being very primitive, machines and tools still imperfect, and the products, consequently, of very poor quality, the people having to depend upon imports from Japan and abroad for their daily necessities. Today the development of industry is in fact astounding. It comprises various kinds such as iron foundries, tanneries, metal-smiths, etc., besides those mentioned before.

Mining

The leading mineral products of Chosen are gold, iron, graphite and coal, next to which are silver, lead, zinc, quicksilver, silica, and kaolin, all of which are produced in fairly large quantities.

According to the latest statistics, established mine-lots in Chosen number more than 2,200, while the annual output in general has gradually increased. In the 43rd year of Meiji (1910) it was valued at 6,060,000 yen, but in 1918 it increased to over 30,830,000 yen as a result of the general economic prosperity of the country. However, the subsequent trade depression caused it to decrease to 14,500,000 yen in the 10th year of Taisho (1921), but it again increased to 20,870,000 yen in the 14th year of Taisho (1925).

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Of the total amount of the output, that of gold amounts to more than 5,700,000 yen and that of iron some 5,000,000 yen. As to coal, it was only a little over 70,000 tons, amounting to about 380,000 yen in the 43rd year of Meiji (1910), but, owing to the rapid development of coal-fields accentuated by the World War, it reached more than 210,000 tons (over 2,120,000 yen) in the 8th year of Taisho (1919) and more than 600,000 tons (over 4,540,000 yen) in the 14th year of Taisho (1925).

All smoke coal is consumed within the country, while part of the smokeless coal is supplied to the Japanese Navy the rest being consumed in the interior of the country in the manufacture of briquettes and for keeping up the temperature in silk-worm rearing rooms. The export of smokeless coal to Japan amounted to about 200,000 tons in the 14th year of Taisho (1925).

Trade

The improvement of industry together with the development of many kinds of enterprises in private fields since the annexation has given an impetus to trade, the volume of which is showing a gradual and steady increase.

Particularly, since the Great War Korean trade has shown great development, and, although it came to a standstill for some time as a result of the financial depression in the 9th year of Taisho (1920), since the following year it has gradually recovered.

Statistics of the last three years show:

GOLD AND SILVER EXPORTED AND IMPORTED

	Export Yen	Import Yen	Total Yen
1924.....	4,221,000	1,238,000	5,459,000
1925.....	3,665,000	390,000	4,056,000
1926 (Up to Sept.) ...	4,310,000	245,000	4,560,000

VALUE OF GENERAL EXPORTS AND IMPORTS

	Export Yen	Import Yen	Total Yen
1924.....	329,035,000	309,593,000	638,633,000
1925.....	341,630,000	340,011,000	681,642;000
1926 (Up to Sept.) ...	250,878,000	279,806,000	530,685,000

GRAND TOTAL

	Export Yen	Import Yen	Total Yen
1924.....	333,260,000	310,831,000	644,091.000
1925.....	345,296,000	340,402,000	685,695,000
1926 (Up to Sept.) ...	255,189,000	280,052,000	535,242,000

EXCESS OF EXPORT OR IMPORT

		Excess
1924.....	Export	¥22,428,000
1925.....	Export	4,893,000
1926 (Up to Sept.)	Import	24,863,000

Almost all countries in the world are customers of Chosen but Japan Proper has the most important spare in the import and export trade of Chosen.

The statistics of the total amount of Korean trade in the 14th year of Taisho (1925) show that 93 per cent of the exports went to Japan Proper and 69 per cent ofthe imports came from Japan Proper, only 7 per cent being exported to foreign countries and 31 per cent imported from them.

The principal foreign countries to which Korean merchandise is exported are China and Russian territory in Asia, while China, the United States, Great Britain, the Dutch East Indies, Germany, Russia in Asia, and British India are the leading exporters to Chosen, in the order named.

Rice, beans and fish are the three most important exports, followed by iron, cow-hides, cotton, ginseng, cocoons, raw silk, gold ore, iron ore, coal, cattle, fertilizer,

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seaweed, and others.

The principal imports are manufactures, of which cotton textiles rank first. Millet, rice, sugar, reeled cotton, whipped cotton, cotton yarn, hemp textiles, silk stuffs, paper, rubber shoes, iron, railway materials, machinery, coal, cement, and lumber, also are includedamong the imports.

Railways.

The state railways of Chosen now cover over 1,300 miles. The Keijo-Chemulpo Line was the earliest open to traffic, being completed in the 33rd year of Meiji (1900), and was followed by the Keijo-Fusan and Keijo-Gishu Lines successively. Thus the trunk-line of over 590 miles, from Fusan to Antunghsien, China, running lengthwise through the Peninsula, is complete. Later the Konan Line, Keijo-Genzan Line, Kankyo Line and other trunk-lines were laid down. Besides, branch-lines such as the Eijin Line, Masan Line, Heinan Line, Heijo Colliery Line, and Kenjiho Line are in operation.

Privately owned railways open to traffic cover a distance of more than 489 miles. Thus the total length of the railways in Chosen is about 1,800 miles. However, when compared with those in Japan proper or even with those in Taiwan, the Korean railways are far from being sufficient. The railway mileage in Japan proper is 39.8 per 100 square miles and in Taiwan 35.3, but is 10.8 miles in Chosen.

In view of this inadequacy the Government-General has decided to construct new lines of a total distance of 860 miles at a cost of 321,504,000 yen, while buying up private lines of a distance of 200 miles. Both of these schemes passed the 52nd session of the Diet. On the completion of the plan, the total length of the railways of Chosen will reach 2,660 miles.

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THE RED CROSS WITH of JAPAN

Contingents sent to Scene of Tango Earthquake

Immediately on receipt of the news of the severe earthquake in the Province of Tango in Kyoto Prefecture on the evening of March 7, the Kyoto office of the Japan Red Cross Society organized five contingents and despatched them in rapid succession to the district, where they gave timely help to the sufferers from the earthquake. Contingents also were sent by other offices of the society to assist those from the Kyoto office; two each from the Hyogo, Osaka, Okayama and Aichi offices, three from the Shiga office, one each from the Fukui, Miye, Nara, Tottori, Wakayama, Shimane, Gifu and Hiroshima offices and some from the Kanagawa office. The Tokyo headquarters of the society sent 1,000 blankets, 100 bed-clothes, 500 sets of underwear, 60 cots, 200 sheets, a number of operating-tables and surgical instruments and a lot of rolled bandages, absorbent gauze and cotton and other requisites. Tents were sent by the Kyoto and other neighbouring offices and the Kanagawa office.

Relief Funds from Abroad

Soon after the occurrence of the earthquake, the American Red Cross contributed to the Japan Red Cross $50,000 towards the relief fund, and notification also was received of the contribution of 3,000 rubles by the Red Crescent of the Soviet Confederation and of 1,000 rubles by the Russian Red Cross.

Polish Orphans

It is well-known that in 1920 and 1922, the Japan Red Cross brought to Japan many Polish children scattered in Siberia and sent them back to their homes in Poland. This action of the society greatly impressed the Polish nation.

Recently, on January 3 to 6, the Messager Polonais, the Polish Government organ, published an article under the heading "Misfortunes of Polished Orphans in Siberia", in which profound thanks to the Japanese Government, the Japan Red Cross and the Japanese nation are expressed. It was written by Dr. Joset Jacob Kiewitch, Vice-Chairman of the Far Eastern Polish Orphans' Relief Committee.

He states in the article that it is especially notable that President Baron Hirayama of the Japan Red Cross Society rendered vital help in sending back the 800 Polish orphans to their home, despite great difficulties, and that the Polish people are inspired with the belief that the Japanese kindness extended to the Polish orphans is traceable to their love of children in general. In conclusion, the writer gives his impression that the Japanese Government and people's sentiment towards the Polish orphans was noble and pure and they accomplished a splendid philanthropic work. He declares that feelings of gratitude and admiration towards these people will remain forever

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in the minds of the Polish people.

Medals of Honour from German Red Cross

The following persons of the Japan Red Cross Society have been presented with Medals of Honour by the German Red Cross, in appreciation of their efforts in the collection of funds for the relief of the German prisoners by the Japan Red Cross from 1914 to 1921 and relief of German children and students after the war:—

First Medal of Honour:

Baron S. Hirayama, President.
Marquis K. Tokugawa, Vice-President.
Mr. S. Nagasaki, Director.
Viscount N. Matsudaira, Counciller.

Second Medal of Honour:

Mr. S. Sakamoto, Vice-President.
Dr. K. Kuwata, Director.
Mr. E. Yoshiyasu, Secretary not on the regular staff.
Mr. T. Yasumi, Secretary.
Mr. G. Kakinuma, Assistant Secretary.
Mr. K. Utahara, Clerk.

Ishiguro Commemoration Medal

The Nightingale-Ishiguro Commemoration Medal is presented to model nurses of high personality, superior ability and diligence, selected from among those serving in the Japan Red Cross head and branch hospitals. This year's recipients of the medal are Mitsu Kawashima, Hiro Hisatomi, Suye Imai, Yaye Shigaki, Yaye Shikakuma, Ritsu Mishima, Kazuye Nakano, Misaye Muro, Kosatsu Imamura, Aki Oku, Hisako Nagashima, Yuki Ono, Shima Hashiguchi, Ogin Katagiri, Saki Takasago, Yoshiye Kodera, Fusano Goto, Shimako Takai, Fumi Sakakibara and Toyo Aoki.

Patients at Red Cross Hospitals

During December, 1926, there were 6,104 in-patients in the head and branch hospitals of the Japan Red Cross, of whom 5,255 were free patients. The year's total was 95,932, of whom 10,877 were free patients, averaging 134 per day per hospital. In the same month, the out-patients numbered 85,959, of whom 10,775 were free patients, bringing the year's total up to 246,680, of whom 30,006 were free patients, averaging 346 per day per hospital. The number of in-patients in the Osaka and eight other tuberculosis hospitals in the month was 328, of whom 128 were paying patients, bringing the year's total up to 5,707, of whom 3,082 were paying patients. The out-patients at these particular hospitals in the month numbered 653, of whom 523 were paying patients, bringing the year's total up to 7,375, of whom 3,794 were paying patients.

Juvenile Red Cross

The Juvenile Red Cross of Japan has attained rapid development since its organization. At present, there are in the country 4,381 scouts and 995,012 members. The Juvenile Red Cross is sending ten Japanese dolls in fine dresses of pure Japanese style to the Juvenile Red Cross Societies of America, France, Belgium, Switzerland, Italy, Austria, Czecho-Slovakia, Bulgaria, Canada and Roumania.

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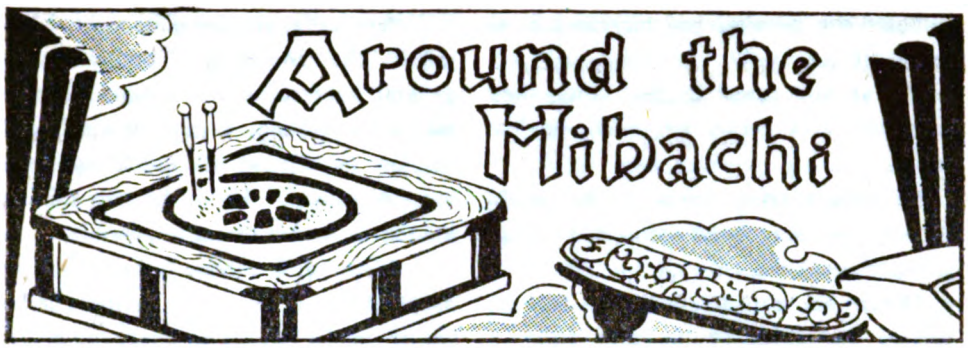

The Prison Bird's Ascent

THE village headman sent out a notice asking the villagers to attend an extraordinary meeting in the compound of the Hachiman Shrine, the local deity, to consider an important question.

At the time appointed, all the heads of the thirty-six houses of the village assembled, including Senyemon, the oldest, aged 88, and Keikichi, the youngest, just coming of agev

The meeting took place in an out-of-the-way village in Mogami District, Yamagata Prefecture on September 7, 1926.

When all had come, Chubei, the village headman, addressed the meeting:—

"Well, my friends! To-day, we are not conferring on the question of a village festival nor of road repairing. It is more important than that. It is in regard to Shinzo, who is now in the Miyagi Prison. It bears considerably upon the peace of the village, and must be considered most carefully at this meeting."

This has not been expected by the men, and they were astonished and exchanged looks.

"I suppose Shinzo will be released soon," one of the sighed with deep emotion.

Shinzo was the only ciminal the village had ever had among its people since it was founded long years ago, and he was serving his ten years' term in the Miyagi Prison.

This quiet, peaceful village lying far off on the border of Akira and Miyagi Prefectures had been left quite behind in the march of so-called progress. Its residents had never been aware of the idea of their and slopt with their doors unfastened. The school pupils being admonished about theft by their teachers, had wondered if there could be such a thing in the world and had been amazed at hearing stories of it.

Nearly ten years ago, however, the happiness of the village was disturbed by a number of mysterious thefts. Finally, the crime was brought home to Shinzo.

This Shinzo. in spite of his poverty, drank daily at the town and came back to the village intoxicated. This invited the suspicion of the village policemen, who, for the firft time since he was appointed to the post, examined a man, on which Shinzo's thefts in the village and its vicinity came to light.

He was sentenced to penal servitude for six years. He was not satisfied with the finding and appealed. But it did not

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mitigate the penalty, but increased it to ten years.

He at last came to his senses and submitted in a manly way to the punishment.

His term nearing expiration, he would be set free very soon after the village meeting was held.

When he was arrested and sent to prison, the village people gave a sigh of relief as if they had got rid of a plague and rejoiced over the return of peace and tranquility. As the same time, some of them, who had been familiar with him, felt pity and sympathy, wondering what was the cause that had led him to such crimes.

Now Shinzo was coming back to the village. What measures should be taken with him by the village was the question, for the discussion of which the meeting was called.

Old Moju, with a discerning look, said:

"Shinzo is a bad fellow. But as he is of our village I feel it our duty to look after him upon being released from prison. As you know, his wife, ashamed of the wrong conduct of her husband, left the village and went to his parents, taking with her her two daughters. Later, these girls died of an epidemic, which made her mad, and she committed suicide by throwing herself into a river. Perhaps Shinzo does not know anything of this tragedy. What an unfortunate fellow! If he finds no one among us to keep company with him, he will, perhaps, desire death rather than life."

Denkichi, another village man, who was known to be stubbornly honest, opposed the old man's view.

"Personally, you are quite right, Moju-san!" he admitted, "but when the general interests of the village are taken into consideration, I think it unadvisable for us to extend so much sympathy towards Shinzo. He is the only criminal among us, and it seems impossible to say that after he is released, he will never again do evil. If his future conduct should be so bad as to affect the morale of the village, how could we remedy that? I suggest, therefore, that we shut our doors against him. What do you think of it, my friends?"

Not a few supported this view, while others thought it rather too harsh to exclude him, but hesitated to say so.

Denkichi turned to the village headman:

"What do you think of my view, Chubei-san? I trust that you do not consider it wrong."

Chubei listening attentively and thoughtfully to the people discussing the question, had kept silent, but being questioned by Denkichi, replied:

"I have my own view, but before stating it, I would like to hear everybody's opinion, for the question is very important."

Keikichi, the youngest, who had been silently looking at the scene, sitting behind others, suddenly spoke:

"May I say a word about the question, *soncho-san* (village headman), although you might think it too forward of such a junior as me? Uncle Denkichi is, in a way, right. It is on doubt safer for the village not to have Shinzo-san coming near us. But where will he go then? No one in another place will take notice of one who has been excluded from one's

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own village. Then, it is sure that he will have no means to support himself, for he, as we, cannot do any job other than to work on the farm or drive a pack-horse. In the end, he will be obliged to again commit crimes and find himself once more in prison, in which he will die a miserable death. If we have a sick man in our family, we ought to take care of him with all our strength, as our natural duty. One doing evil is mentally sick, and I feel it our duty to take care of Shinzo-san and cure him completely of his mental disease so that it does not recur and infect others."

"Splendid!" old Moju cried in a loud voice, "how wise you are, Keikichi! It is shameful that none of the elders here, who look so wise, had such a good idea. You are quite right, Keikichi. I strongly insist on taking in Shinzo against any opposition and making him a honest man. I believe no one at this meeting can have any objection to make."

Not a single man opposed Keikichi's view. Even Denkichi, who had been upholding the exclusion view, was moved by Keikichi's plea.

Accordingly, the meeting decided to take in Shinzo and to regenerate him. It discussed then means to help him. Finally, a resolution was carried to set up for him a resting-house on the mountain-pass between this and neighbouring villages.

The village being situated in a valley, its residents had to go over the pass to go to outside districts. There had been once a resting-house on the pass but it had decayed after the death of the old keeper, to the inconvenience of travellers.

An amount of money was contributed by the villagers for the cost of rebuilding the resting-house. One carpenter was employed, assisted by a number of the villagers.

Shinzo had reached the age of 50 during his prison life. His black hair had become gray. He heard of the death of his wife and two daughters. He thought of his honest fellow villagers not caring for an ex-convict and of the inevitableness of being employed as a farm labourer in another province. He resigned himself to it, as a retribution for his wrong deeds.

He was set at liberty. Holding in his pocket a small amount of money saved, he was leaving the jail, when he was told by the jailer that callers were waiting for him. He wondered who they could be and entered the waiting-room, where he was astonished to find his village headman and Uncle Moju.

"Oh! *soncho-san* and Moju-*ojisan!* I have no words to apologize for my misdeeds," he said shamefacedly, hanging his head.

"We have come to receive you, as representatives of our village men. Let us go back at once, Shinzo-san!" the village headman said.

"I am very thankful for your kindness," Shinzo replied, "but I am too ashamed to go back to the village and meet my old friends."

"Never mind that, never mind that!" Chubei said, "if you will reform, we will gladly look after you and arrange that you may make a living yourself."

Shinzo, with his two elders, left the prison, feeling as if he were dreaming.

After ten years, he was coming back to his dear native place, without being obliged to go to another district, where

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he might have to face starvation.

They left the nearest railway station for the village and walked for about ten miles, to a mountain-pass. At the summit stood a newly built resting-house. There were in it many people from Shinzo's village to meet him. Shinzo was told by Chubei that the house was a present to him from his friends. He gazed at Chubei in stupefaction for a moment, then burst into tears and bowed his thanks to each.

Honest Shinzo is still keeping the resting-house and working on the farm at the back. Every morning and evening he never forgets to thank his fellow villagers. Facing in the direction of the village, which may be seen from the resting-house, he stands with hands clasped and head bowed.

The New Diet Building taking shape in Tokyo.

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Lacquered Butterflies

A Novel

(V)

By Ryutei Tanehiko

FUBUKI, the mother of young master Kichiza of the Fudoya, related to her husband Kanraku that Kichiza did not care to marry Ayame. "When I have a chance I'll persuade him into the marriages," he replied.

Four or five months elapsed. Old Kanraku was too busy with some worldly affairs to meet and talk quietly and leisurely with Kichiza over the marriage question.

Midsummer came. During the daytime, it was unbearingly hot, but at sunset, the people were relieved by the refreshing breezes and forgot the day's intense heat, listening to the *higurashi* crying in the distance. Young Kichiza, sitting on the bamboo verandah of his room, was enjoying the cool breeze, when Ayame came down into the garden before the room, taking with her a watering-pot to water the flowers. It was dim, as no paper lanterns were placed on the verandah or hanging under the eaves.

There was no one but Kichiza sitting there. Ayame came near him quietly.

"A little while ago, mother went out with Tagomatsu-san to worship at the Hachiman Shrine and is not yet beck. It is too late and I feel uneasy. Moreover, she has not looked very well of late, perhaps has some trouble on her mind. Do you not think so, Kichiza ?"

So saying, she sounded him on the question of marriage. He quickly surmised as much from her looks, but pretended not to notice anything. He laughed and replied lightly:

"No, no, Ayame. If she really had trouble, she would have told you. She would not brood over anything by herself."

Ayama had something more to tell him but before she could do so, tears came into her eyes. She choked them down and was silent. Kichiza felt awkward and played with his fan.

Just at that moment, a man stopped in front of the back gate of the house, leading to the garden. He peeped into the house from between the hedge trees through the garden and found Kichiza there on the verandah.

He entered the garden and approached Kichiza, "I say, sir, you are Sagoshichi-san, are you?" he inquired with a bow. "I have brought you a letter from your uncle Ukuro-san, who wanted it to be handed directly to you."

As he said this, he took a letter from his pocket and submitted it to Kichiza. Kichiza took it, saying to himself "Sagoshichi, Sagoshichi."

The messenger seemed to infer from this that the man was not Sagoshichi. He put his hand on the letter, which was held by Kichiza and said,

"If you are not Sagoshichi-san, please return it to me. I was strictly ordered by the sender not to hand it to any one but the addressee."

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All the while, he looked nervous and agitated. His attitude aroused the suspicion of Kichiza, who pushing aside the man, opened the letter and read it. He betrayed anger in his face and called out to Sagoshichi.

Sagoshichi, working in the shop, heard the young master and came to the room, wondering what had happened.

Kichiza threw the letter at him and cried:

"You rascal! You deceived all of us by saying that Ayame is your younger sister, while, on the contrary, she is your sweetheart. I learn it from this letter. It must be Heaven's retribution that your letter has been read by me. Leave this house at once!"

Sagoshichi could not make head or tail of the matter. Timidly, he took up the letter and read it. It ran:

"..... I have casually heard that you are misconducting yourself with a girl called Ayame, and have a sinister design to give her to marriage to the young master of the wealthy Fudoya, pretending her to be your young sister, and to seize his property. I should advise you to give up the plot and come back soon to this place, as such a plot is sure to be found out."

As he read the letter, he was still more amazed, as he had no such uncle as Ukuro.

"Ukuro is a total stranger to me, sir," he said to Kichiza, "if the messenger is questioned closely, the matter would be cleared up."

He ran out to catch the messenger in the garden. But the strange man at the sight of him took to his heels in confusion. Sagoshichi ran after him.

Suddenly, there was Danpachi, the Fudoya's banto, before Sagoshichi, whom he took by the neck and would not let go on. He shouted,

"How insolent you are, Sagoshichi, to attempt flight, pretending to run after the man, and without trying to clear away the master's suspicion about you."

In the meantime, the messenger disappeared, upon which Danpachi laughed harshly and said to Sagoshichi,

"We have disliked your insolent behaviour in the past, but little did I dream that you would concoct such an intrigue. Confess! Otherwise, you will be served badly."

He took up the charcoal-box, with which he gave Sagoshichi a beating.

Ayame was so frightened that she lost her presence of mind and broke down crying. Still she could not see her innocent brother being punished. She rose and ran to Danpachi, whose clothes she grasped to stop him. This gave a chance to Sagoshichi to get up and go out to the road, where looked round for the suspicious messenger, but there was no sign of him.

Old Kanraku made his appearance in the room. At first, he helped Ayama to sit up. Then, he scolded Danpachi.

"In the next room, I have heard everything, Danpachi, you have to blame yourself much for beating Sagoshichi without being ordered by your master and for letting the messenger escape."

Danpachi prostrated himself before the old master.

Then, a woman dashed into the garden, pushing open the wicket hastily. She was about 40 years old. She was in rags, her unkempt hair being tied with

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pieces of straw. But she had a pretty face.

She ran to Sagoshichi and seized him shamelessly by the breast of his coat. Sagoshichi was startled at this sudden attack. He tried to get to his feet, but the intruder, crying, did not lose her hold.

"Oh, my dear! How I have longed to see you!" she shrieked. "I have had a thousand troubles on account of you and am overjoyed at last to meet you. Still you say nothing to me, but try to get away from me. How cold-hearted you are, Sagochichi!"

Sagoshichi, who did not know her, was amazed at this fresh unlooked-for event.

"Who in the world are you?" he demanded. "You must be mad. Be off with you!"

So saying, he gave her a kick. She fell down over the verandah and did not get up.

Wonderingly, old Kanraku gazed at her face and cried:

"I know her, I know her! She is a beggar at Tonosawa, to be sure. I have often seen her in the neighbourhood of the Taigyo Temple. From her conduct, it looks as though she has come to extort money from this house by threatening to bring shame on us. Turn her out!"

Kichiza and Danpachi did not listen to his command. They urged Sagoshichi to to defend himself against the charges and to produce proof that he was the brother of Ayame.

Hearing the name of Ayame, the beggar rose and cried angrily: "Ayame is here with Sagoshichi, as I supposed?"

Instantly, Danpachi inquired,

"I thought you, at first, to be mad, but what you said now seems to have some significance. There must be some reason for your conduct. What has made you behave so strangely? Why have you such a grudge against Sagoshichi and Ayame? Just tell us the truth."

The woman bowed and replied with tears:

"I was once a *shirabyoshi* (dancing girl), called Kawana, in Kyoto. I fell in love with Sagoshichi, with whom I ran away from Kyoto to Nagara in the Province of Settsu, where we lived happily in concealment for a few years. Then, Sagoshichi disappeared, leaving me alone. With it, Ayame, a girl of a neigbouring house, became missing. I supposed that the two had been in secret intrigue or Sagoshichi enticed her out with the intention to sell her as a prostitute on her becoming of age. Since then, I have been searching for him and came to Kamakura, where I have at last found him."

Sagoshichi glared at Kawana angrily and exclaimed:

"I am an orphan and was never married. You bring a false charge against me. You probably belong to the same swindler as the one who wrote a false letter to me."

So saying, he held her down.

"Don't lie, Sagoshichi!" she cried, "I have grown too old for you, and you are, no doubt, tired of me."

"Do you not really know this woman?" Kanraku asked Sagoshichi.

"Certainly not," he replied, she seems not to be quite a stranger to me, but I do not remember who she is."

Kanraku said, with a nod, to him,

"I have heard that to prove a blood relation of one with another, a way is to

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put blood of both in water and to see if it joins. Now, Ayame is your younger sister, but she is suspected to be your wife. You had better put your blood in water and see if it joins with Ayame's."

He brought before the two a basin filled with water.

Ayame said gladly:

"That's a good idea. There could be no better way than that to prove our innocence. Let me drop my blood first into the water!"

She drew her short sword, with which she was about to stab her white arm.

Sagoshichi stopped her excitedly, exclaiming, "I can't obey my master's command, however weighty it may be."

Ayame wondered why he stopped her and tried to prevail on him to try the method to clear themselves. But he was silent and would not hear of it.

Kichiza, who had been a spectator until now, rose and pushed Sagoshichi over the verandah. He said to him:

"You have no doubt some dark design, for you have let it out that you are an orphan and you show a disinclination to prove that you are the elder brother of Ayame, although I am not sure that you are in intimate relations with her. I do not wish to look into the matter any more, for a reason that I hold in my bosom. Leave the house at once, taking Ayame with you!"

Obediently, Sagoshichi and Ayame took leave of their old and young masters.

Kanraku said to Sagoshichi,

"From the letter to you and the beggar's conduct, I suppose that there is a deep plot at work against you. But any excuse you may offer now would be of little avail. Wait for God's good time, when you and Ayame will be re-employed by me."

He gave a short sword to Sagoshichi as a present.

Sagoshichi was moved to tears by his kindness and left the house, accompanied by Ayame. The beggar followed them. Out on the road, Sagoshichi pushed her down and exclaimed,

"Hussy! Who are you? Confess?"

Thereupon, Danpachi re-appeared. He struck at him and knocked him down. Taking advantage of this the beggar ran off.

Sagoshichi rose and ran after her, with Ayame.

(To be Continued)

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The Editor's Diary

March 16.—The fine appearance of the dolls recently sent by American girls to their Japanese friends struck the educational authorities with such admiration that they have decided to introduce improvements in the design of Japanese toys and picture-books, which are open to criticism as to their uneducational character, and have telegraphically asked their officials studying in England, America, Germany and France to send specimens of toys and picture-books.

March 17.—The crews of the Japanese warships *Kasuga* and *Urakaze* and the Japanese steamer *Chefoo Maru*, who saved the men of the *City of Naples*, a British steamer, which met disaster off the coast of Idzu in June, 1926, were presented with silver medals by the British King and souvenirs and prizes by the shipowners and the insurance company concerned as a token of their gratitude. The British Ambassador, Sir John Tilley, today, sent them to the recipients.

March 18.—The Cabinent adopted a draft Imperial ordinance allowing an extension to August, 1928 of the period of existence of the so-called barracks in the earthquake zone of Tokyo, Yokohama and neighbouring towns and villages.

March 19.—A representation was introduced in the Lower House of the Diet by members of the Seiyu-kai, censuring the Finance Minister, Mr. Kataoka, for "his ignorance of responsibility as a State Minister for the present disturbances of the money market." It was rejected by 200 votes to 113.

March 20.—The Finance Department reports that for the middle ten days of March, the foreign trade of Japan amounted to 41,102,000 yen in exports and to 62,616,000 yen in imports, showing a balance of 21,514,000 yen against Japan. As compared with the same period in 1926, exports lost 16,920,000 yen and imports 39,066,000 yen, the excess of imports over exports also showing a decrease of 22,146,000 yen. In the total since January 1, the balance of foreign trade against Japan shows a falling off of 46,199,000 yen from the same interval, 1926.

March 21.—The *Wakamiya-Maru* of the Kamiya-Shimaya Steamship Co., laden with 4,000 tons of lumber, encountered dense fog and a heavy storm at sea, lost her course, and ran aground in the Sea of Kashima. Her crew of 37 men was rescued.

March 22.—Following the suspension of payment of the Tokyo Watanabe Bank and its affiliated Akaji Savings Bank, both of which have been fairly well known in Tokyo, owing to the trade dullness, the Nakai Bank closed its doors. The depositors became nervous and made runs on other banks, compelling the 84th, Nakazawa, Soda and Murai Banks to suspend payment to-day. The Bank of Japan has been called upon for the accommodation of funds by the banks, and its advances made to them since March 15 reached 111,000,000 yen.

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March 23.—The Government Bill relating to the issue of bonds for compensation for losses on earthquake notes passed the House of Peers.

March 24.—Mr. I. Kiyose of the Shinsei Club, in a discussion of the Government accounts settled for the fiscal year 1925-1926 in the Lower House of the Diet criticised an extraordinary military expenditure defrayed in connection with the despatch of troops to Siberia. The criticism was irritating to the members of the Seiyu-kai, which was in power when the troops were sent. About ten of them became especially excited, creating a wild scene. They assulted and inflicted injury on Mr. S. Tazaki of the Shinsei Club, and then attacked the speaker, Mr. Kiyose, on the platform and injured him in a scuffle. The President and the Vice-President of the Lower House presented their resignations, holding themselves responsible for the occurrence which was unprecedented in the history of the Japanese Parliament.

While 150 men of the Fourth Company of the Training Regiment of the Chiba Infantry School were at work on the barrack ground, shells for use in manoeuvers exploded, killing one man and injuring 17 men more or less seriously.

March 25.—A special despatch from Shanghai reports that on the morning of March 24, the Japanese Consulate at Nanking was looted by Southerners, who committed every sort of outrage.

March 26.—The Imperial Government has decided to despatch a part of the First Standing Squadron to Tsingtau and eight destroyers to Shanghai to protect the Japanese residents in Shanghai, Nanking and vicinity.

Representatives of the Kensei-kai, the Seiyu-Honto and the Shinsei Club have filed a complaint with the Tokyo District Court against sixteen members of the Seiyu-kai, who did violence to certain Shinsei Club men in the Lower House on March 24.

March 27.—About noon to-day one of the Iwaki Collieries took fire and was soon ablaze. Being a holiday, no miners were in it, but about 200 mechanics, carpenters, etc. were at work in it repairing galleries. Of these about 100 could not escape and were burnt to death. A pitiful scene was enacted when the corpses were brought out from the pit by their wives and children.

March 28.—It is reported by the Finance Department that on February 28, the specie held amounted to 1,337,000,000 yen, 9,000,000 yen less than on January 31. The decrease was due to money having been paid on account of some foreigh bonds, principal and interest.

March 29.—Lieutenant Araki, who was on duty protecting the Japanese residents at Nanking in the recent outrages by the Southerners, attempted suicide to-day, after sending the Japanese sufferers to the Japanese warships and himself coming back to Shanghai by the *Tenryu*, holding himself responsible for the event. He is seriously hurt but will probably be saved from death.

March 30.—Japanese Consul-General Yada visited General Chiang Kai-shek and questioned him closely about the Nanking affair. In reply, the Chinese general declared that he will bear the whole responsibility for the affair. He at once started investigations.

April 1.—To-day the Cabinet con-

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sidered measures to be taken in connection with the South China disturbances and decided to adhere to a peaceful policy towards China and to take every possible means for the protection of the Japanese residents in that country, in concert with England and America.

April 2.—It has been decided to appoint Viscount K. Ishii, the Japanese Ambassador in France, as the second chief of the Japanese delegation at the Naval Limitation Conference to be held by Japan, England and America. For first chief, Governor-General Viscount Saito of Korea has been asked to accept the post by the Prime Minister, Mr. Wakatsuki. To-day Viscount Saito visited the Premier and replied formally accepting the request.

Apr. 3—A special despatch from Shanghai states that Chinese rioters rushed to the Japanese settlement in Hankow, shouting for its recovery. They destroyed Japanese houses and offices there and looted their property. They also shot at Japanese in the streets. A company of Japanese marines landed and guarded the settlement. All the Japanese residents were taken to the Japanese destroyer.

April 4.—It is reported by the Finance Department that for March, 1927, the foreign trade of Japan amounted to 153,957,000 yen for exports and to 229,343,000 yen for imports, the balance of which stands at 76,386,000 yen against Japan being less by 21,893,000 yen than the figure for the same month, 1926.

April 5.—The Savings Bureau of the Communications Departments reports that the outstanding amount of postal savings increased 19,000,000 yen since the middle of March as against a decrease of 3,500,000 to 10,000,000 yen in March in the past six or seven years. This phenomenon is believed to be an outcome of public apprehensions about private banks.

April 6.—Prosecution was started against eleven Seiyu-kai members of the Lower House of the Diet, for disorderly conduct.

April 7.—The completion of the frame work of the new Imperial Diet buildings was celebrated at 10 a.m. to-day. The ceremony was held with ancient rite before 2,000 persons present.

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